

Theory of R-convergence of Nets in Fuzzy Lattices and Its Applications

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Abstract: In this paper, we first introduce the concepts of R-convergence of nets and R-closures in fuzzy lattices, and systematically discuss their properties. We obtain more interesting characterizations with respect to almost continuous and R-irresolute order-homomorphisms by means of the theory.

Keywords: fuzzy lattice; R-convergence; R-closure; order-homomorphism; almost continuity; R-irresoluteness

1. Preliminaries

Throughout this paper, L , L_1 and L_2 will always denote fuzzy lattices, i.e. completely distributive lattices with order-reversing involutions " $'$ ". M , M_1 and M_2 will denote the set of all nonzero \vee -irreducible elements i.e. so-called molecularae, or points for short, in L , L_1 and L_2 respectively. $(L(M), \delta)$, $(L_1(M_1), \delta_1)$ and $(L_2(M_2), \delta_2)$ will be topological molecular lattices (briefly, TML) with the topology δ , δ_1 and δ_2 respectively. Put $\eta(e) = \{P \in \delta'; e \not\leq P\}$ and call the elements in $\eta(e)$ R-neighborhoods of a point $e \in M$ [5]. Write $R\eta(e) = \{P \in \eta(e): P = P^{0-}\}$.

A mapping $f: L_1 \rightarrow L_2$ is said to be an order-homomorphism if the following conditions hold: (H_1) $f(0) = 0$; (H_2) $f(\vee A_i) = \vee f(A_i)$; (H_3) $f^{-1}(B') = (f^{-1}(B))'$ [6]. An order-homomorphism (briefly, OH) $f: (L_1(M_1), \delta_1) \rightarrow (L_2(M_2), \delta_2)$ is called almost continuous (R-irresolute) if the inverse image of every regular open element in L_2 is open (regular open) in L_1 .

2. Theory of R-convergence of nets in fuzzy lattices

Definition 2.1 Let $(L(M), \delta)$ be a TML, $A \in L$ and $e \in M$. e is in the R-closure of A ($e \leq A_{\bar{R}}$) if for each $P \in R\eta(e)$, $A \not\leq P$. If $e \leq A_{\bar{R}}$, then we call e a R-adherence point of A . A is called R-closed if $A = A_{\bar{R}}$. A is called R-open if A' is R-closed.

The following theorem follows immediately from Definition 2.1.

Theorem 2.1 In any TML $(L(M), \delta)$ we have:

- (1) The least element 0 and the greatest element 1 of L are R-closed.
- (2) $A \triangleleft A^- \triangleleft A_R^- \triangleleft A_\theta^-$ [4] for each $A \in L$.
- (3) If $A \triangleleft B$, then $A_R^- \triangleleft B_R^-$ for $A, B \in L$.
- (4) $A_R^- = \bigvee \{e \in M : e \text{ is a R-adherence point of } A\}$ for $A \in L$.
- (5) Arbitrary intersections and finite unions of R-closed elements are R-closed.
- (6) Every R-closed element is closed.
- (7) Every θ -closed element is R-closed.
- (8) Every regular closed element is R-closed.
- (9) If $A \in \delta$, then $A^- = A_R^- = A_\theta^-$.

Definition 2.2 A point e in $(L(M), \delta)$ is said to be a R-cluster point of an element A in $(LM), \delta)$ if (1) $e \triangleleft A_R^-$; (2) $e \not\triangleleft A$, or $e \triangleleft A$ and $A \not\triangleleft P \vee b$ for each $P \in R\eta(e)$ and each b in M with $e \triangleleft b \triangleleft A$. The union of all R-cluster points of A will be denoted by A_R^d and called the R-derived element of A .

Theorem 2.2 Let $(L(M), \delta)$ be a TML, $A \in L$. Then

- (1) $A_R^- = A \vee A_R^d$
- (2) $(A^d)_R^- \triangleleft A_R^-$.

- (3) A is R-closed iff for each point $e \not\triangleleft A$, there exists $P \in R\eta(e)$ such that $A \triangleleft P$.

Proof. The proofs of (1) and (2) are easy and are omitted. We only check (3). In case A is R-closed and $e \not\triangleleft A$, then $e \not\triangleleft A_R^-$, and then there exists $P \in R\eta(e)$ such that $A \triangleleft P$ by Definition 2.1. Conversely, if A is not R-closed, then we have a point $e \in M$ such that $e \triangleleft A_R^-$ and $e \not\triangleleft A$ by Proposition 2.17 in [5]. However, being $e \triangleleft A_R^-$, we know that there is not $P \in R\eta(e)$ such that $A \triangleleft P$. Hence the sufficiency is proved.

Definition 2.3 Let S be a molecular net in $(L(M), \delta)$ and $e \in M$. If for each $P \in R\eta(e)$, S is eventually not in P , then e is called a R-limit point of S (or S R-converges to e), in symbols $S \xrightarrow{R} e$. If for each $P \in R\eta(e)$, S is frequently not in P , then e is called a R-cluster point of S (or S R-accumulates to e), in symbols $S \infty_R e$. The union of all R-limit points and all R-cluster points of S will be denoted by $R\text{-lim} S$ and $R\text{-ad} S$ respectively.

From the definition, Definition 4.17 in [5] and Definition 3.3 in [3] one can readily verify the following theorem:

Theorem 2.3 Let S be a molecular net in $(L(M), \delta)$ and $e \in M$. Then we have:

- (1) $S \xrightarrow{R} e$ iff $e \triangleleft R\text{-lim} S$.
- (2) $S \infty_R e$ iff $e \triangleleft R\text{-ad} S$.
- (3) $\lim S \triangleleft R\text{-lim} S \triangleleft \theta\text{-lim} S$.
- (4) $\text{ad} S \triangleleft R\text{-ad} S \triangleleft \theta\text{-ad} S$.
- (5) $R\text{-lim} S \triangleleft R\text{-ad} S$.

(6) $R\text{-lim } S$ and $R\text{-ad } S$ are R -closed.

Where $\theta\text{-lim } S$ and $\theta\text{-ad } S$ denote the union of all θ -limit points [3] and all θ -cluster points [3] of S respectively.

Proof. We only investigate Statement (6). Let $e \in (R\text{-lim } S)_R$. Then for each $P \in R\eta(e)$ we have $R\text{-lim } S \not\prec P$ by Definition 2.1, and hence there is a point $b \in M$ such that $b \in R\text{-lim } S$ and $b \not\prec P$ according to Proposition 2.7 in [5]. Since $P \in R\eta(b)$ and $b \in R\text{-lim } S$, by Statement(1), S is eventually not P . So $e \in R\text{-lim } S$. This implies that $R\text{-lim } S$ is R -closed. Similarly, $R\text{-ad } S = (R\text{-ad } S)_R$.

Theorem 2.4 In a TML $(L(M), \delta)$, $e \in A_R$ iff there exists in A a molecular net which R -converges to e .

Proof. Let $e \in A_R$; then for each $P \in R\eta(e)$ we have $A \not\prec P$. In the light of Proposition 2.17 in [5], there is a molecule $S(P)$ in A with $S(P) \not\prec P$. Take $S = \{S(P) : P \in R\eta(e)\}$. Obviously, S is a molecular net in A by virtue of the fact that $R\eta(e)$ is an ideal base and $S \xrightarrow{R} e$. Conversely, if $S = \{S(n) : n \in D\}$ is a molecular net in A and $S \xrightarrow{R} e$, then for each $P \in R\eta(e)$, there is $n_0 \in D$ such that $S(n) \not\prec P$ whenever $n \succ n_0$ ($n \in D$). Hence $A \not\prec P$, and hence $e \in A_R$ by Definition 2.1.

Theorem 2.5 Let S be a molecular net in $(L(M), \delta)$ and $e \in M$. Then $S \xrightarrow{R} e$ iff S has a subnet T satisfying $T \xrightarrow{R} e$.

Proof. Suppose that $S = \{S(n) : n \in D\}$ is a molecular net in $(L(M), \delta)$ and $S \xrightarrow{R} e$. Then for each $P \in R\eta(e)$ and each $n \in D$, there exists $N(P, n) \in D$ such that $N(P, n) \succ n$ and $S(N(P, n)) \not\prec P$. Let $E = R\eta(e) \times D$ and define

$$(P_1, N(P_1, n_1)) \prec (P_2, N(P_2, n_2)) \text{ iff } P_1 \prec P_2 \text{ and } n_1 \prec n_2.$$

Then E is a directed set. Take $T(P, N(P, n)) = S(N(P, n))$. Then we obtain a subnet $T = \{T(P, N(P, n)) : (P, N(P, n)) \in E\}$ of S . For each $Q \in R\eta(e)$, choose $(Q, N(Q, n)) \in E$, we have $T(P, N(P, n)) \not\prec Q$ whenever $(P, N(P, n)) \succ (Q, N(Q, n))$ because of the fact that $T(P, N(P, n)) = S(N(P, n)) \not\prec P$ and $Q \prec P$. This shows that T is eventually not in Q , and so T R -converges to e . Conversely, provided that $T = \{T(m) : m \in E\}$ is a subnet of S and $T \xrightarrow{R} e$. For each $n_0 \in D$, we have a mapping $N : E \rightarrow D$ and $m_0 \in E$ such that $N(m) \succ n_0$ as $m \succ m_0$ ($m \in E$). Since T R -converges to e , there is $m_1 \in E$ with $T(m) \not\prec P$ as long as $m \succ m_1$ ($m \in E$) for each $P \in R\eta(e)$. Because E is a directed set, we have $m_2 \in E$ such that $m_2 \succ m_0$ and $m_2 \succ m_1$. Hence $T(m_2) \not\prec P$ and $N(m_2) \succ n_0$. Let $n = N(m_2)$. Then $S(n) = S(N(m_2)) = T(m_2) \not\prec P$ and $n \succ n_0$. This means that S is frequently not in P . Hence $S \xrightarrow{R} e$.

Theorem 2.6 Assume that S is a molecular net in $(L(M), \delta)$. If S R -converges to $e \in M$, then every subnet of S also R -converges to e .

Proof. The proof is straightforward and is omitted.

3. Applications with Respect to Theory of R-convergence of Nets

In [1], N.Ajmal and S.K. Azad introduced the notion of fuzzy almost continuity at a fuzzy point and obtained a pointwise characterization of fuzzy almost continuous functions by dual points and fuzzy nets. In this section, we shall present the concepts of almost continuous and R-irresolute order-homomorphisms at a point, which are a proper generalization of that in [1], and get more characters of almost continuity and R-irresoluteness by theory of R-convergence of nets.

Definition 3.1 Let $f:(L_1(M_1),\delta_1)\rightarrow(L_2(M_2),\delta_2)$ be an OH and $e\in M_1$. f is said to be almost continuous at e if for each $P\in R\eta(f(e))$ we have $(f^{-1}(P))^- \in \eta(e)$.

Theorem 3.1 An OH $f:(L_1(M_1),\delta_1)\rightarrow(L_2(M_2),\delta_2)$ is almost continuous iff for each point $e\in M_1$, f is almost continuous at e .

Proof. Suppose that f is almost continuous, $e\in M_1$ and $P\in R\eta(f(e))$. Then $f^{-1}(P)=(f^{-1}(P))^-$ by Theorem 2.2 in [2]. Since $f(e)\not\prec P$ iff $e\not\prec f^{-1}(P)$, $(f^{-1}(P))^- \in \eta(e)$. Hence f is almost continuous at e . Conversely, if f is not almost continuous, then there exists a regular closed element B in $(\delta_2)'$ such that $f^{-1}(B)\prec (f^{-1}(B))^-$. In accordance with Proposition 2.17 in [5] we have a point $e\in M_1$ satisfying $e\prec (f^{-1}(B))^-$ and $e\not\prec f^{-1}(B)$. Because $e\not\prec f^{-1}(B)$ implies $f(e)\not\prec B$, $B\in R\eta(f(e))$. However, $(f^{-1}(B))^- \notin \eta(e)$. Therefore the sufficiency holds.

Theorem 3.2 An OH $f:(L_1(M_1),\delta_1)\rightarrow(L_2(M_2),\delta_2)$ is almost continuous iff for each $A\in L_1$, $f(A^-)\prec (f(A))_R^-$.

Proof. In case f is almost continuous and $A\in L_1$, then for each point $e\prec A^-$ and each $P\in R\eta(f(e))$ we have $(f^{-1}(P))^- \in \eta(e)$, and then $A\not\prec (f^{-1}(P))^- = f^{-1}(P)$, i.e. $f(A)\not\prec P$. Therefore $f(e)\prec (f(A))_R^-$ by Definition 2.1. This implies $f(A^-)\prec (f(A))_R^-$. Conversely, suppose that the condition is satisfied and that B is a regular closed element in L_2 . Then we have $f((f^{-1}(B))^-)\prec (ff^{-1}(B))_R^- \prec B_R^- = B$ by Theorem 2.1 (6), equivalently, $(f^{-1}(B))^- \prec f^{-1}(B)$. This shows that f is almost continuous.

Theorem 3.3 An OH $f:(L_1(M_1),\delta_1)\rightarrow(L_2(M_2),\delta_2)$ is almost continuous iff for each point $e\in M_1$ and each molecular net S in L_1 which converges to e , $f(S)$ R-converges to $f(e)$.

Proof. Assume that f is almost continuous, $e\in M_1$ and $P\in R\eta(f(e))$. Then $(f^{-1}(P))^- \in \eta(e)$ by Theorem 3.1. Let $S=\{S(n): n\in D\}$ be a molecular net in L_1 which converges to e . Then there is $n_0\in D$ such that $S(n)\not\prec (f^{-1}(P))^- = f^{-1}(P)$ whenever $n\geq n_0$ ($n\in D$). Since $S(n)\not\prec f^{-1}(P)$ implies $f(S(n))\not\prec P$, $f(S)=\{f(S(n)): n\in D\}$ R-converges to $f(e)$. Conversely, grant that B is a regular closed element in L_2 . We shall prove that $(f^{-1}(B))^- \prec f^{-1}(B)$. For this aim, let $e\prec (f^{-1}(B))^-$. According to Corollary 4.23 in [5], there exists in $f^{-1}(B)$ a molecular net S

which converges to e . Obviously $f(S)$ is a molecular net in B . Hence $f(S)$ R -converges to $f(e)$ by the condition of the theorem, and hence $f(e) \leq \overline{B_R} = B$, that is, $e \leq f^{-1}(B)$. This means that $(f^{-1}(B))^- \leq f^{-1}(B)$. Thus the almost continuity of f follows immediately.

Theorem 3.4 An OH $f:(L_1(M_1), \delta_1) \rightarrow (L_2(M_2), \delta_2)$ is almost cotinuous iff for each molecular net S in L_1 , $f(\lim S) \leq R\text{-}\lim f(S)$.

Proof. Presume that S is a molecular net in L_1 . By Theorem 2.3 and Theorem 4.21 in [5], we know easily that $f(\lim S) \leq R\text{-}\lim f(S)$ iff for each point $e \in M_1$ and $e \leq \lim S$, $f(e) \leq R\text{-}\lim f(S)$, i.e. $f(\lim S) \leq R\text{-}\lim f(S)$ iff for each point $e \in M_1$, $S \rightarrow e$ implies $f(S) \xrightarrow{R} f(e)$.

Hence the theorem follows from Theorem 3.3

Theorem 3.5 An OH $f:(L_1(M_1), \delta_1) \rightarrow (L_2(M_2), \delta_2)$ is almost continuous iff for each $B \in L_2$, $(f^{-1}(B))^- \leq f^{-1}(\overline{B_R})$.

Proof. Since for each $B \in L_2$, $f^{-1}(B) \in L_1$, from Theorem 3.2 we obtain that if f is almost continuous, then $f((f^{-1}(B))^-) \leq (ff^{-1}(B))_{\overline{R}} \leq \overline{B_R}$. Hence $(f^{-1}(B))^- \leq f^{-1}(\overline{B_R})$. Conversely, assume that the condition is true and $A \in L_1$. Then $f(A) \in L_2$ and $A^- \leq (f^{-1}f(A))^- \leq f^{-1}((f(A))_{\overline{R}})$. So $f(A^-) \leq (f(A))_{\overline{R}}$ and so f is almost continuous by Theorem 3.2.

Theorem 3.6 Let $(L_1(M_1), \delta_1)$ be a C_1 TML [5]; then an OH $f:(L_1(M_1), \delta_1) \rightarrow (L_2(M_2), \delta_2)$ is almost continuous iff for each point $e \in M_1$ and each molecular sequence S in L_1 which converges to e , $f(S)$ R -converges to $f(e)$.

Proof. The necessity follows from Theorem 3.3. Now we only prove the sufficiency. If f is not almost continuous, then there exists a point $e \in M_1$ such that f is not almost continuous at e . This is the same as there is $Q \in R\eta(f(e))$ with $(f^{-1}(Q))^- \notin \eta(e)$. Let $\{P_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ be an increasing R -neighborhood base of e . Then for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$ we have $f^{-1}(Q) \not\leq P_n$, and then there is a molecule $S(n)$ satisfying $S(n) \leq f^{-1}(Q)$ and $S(n) \not\leq P_n$. Take $S = \{S(n) : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$, one easily sees that S is molecular sequence in L_1 which converges to e . However, $f(S)$ does not R -converges to $f(e)$ because for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $S(n) \leq f^{-1}(Q)$, i.e. $f(S(n)) \leq Q$.

Definition 3.2 An OH $f:(L_1(M_1), \delta_1) \rightarrow (L_2(M_2), \delta_2)$ is called R -irresolute at a point $e \in M_1$ iff for each $P \in R\eta(f(e))$, $(f^{-1}(P))_{\overline{R}} \in \eta(e)$.

Theorem 3.7 An OH $f:(L_1(M_1), \delta_1) \rightarrow (L_2(M_2), \delta_2)$ is R -irresolute iff for each point $e \in M_1$, f is R -irresolute at e .

Proof. Let f is R -irresolute, $e \in M_1$ and $P \in R\eta(f(e))$. Then $f^{-1}(P)$ is regular closed in L_1 by Theorem 4.5 in [2], and then $f^{-1}(P) = (f^{-1}(P))_{\overline{R}}$ in the light of Theorem 2.1. Since $f(e) \leq P$ implies that $e \leq f^{-1}(P)$, $(f^{-1}(P))_{\overline{R}} \in \eta(e)$. This shows that f is R -irresolute at e . Conversely, in case f is not R -irresolute, then there is a regular closed element Q in L_2 such that $f^{-1}(Q)$ is not regular closed in L_1 . Hence $f^{-1}(Q) < (f^{-1}(Q))_{\overline{R}}$. From Proposition 2.17 in [5] we

have a point $e \in M_1$ such that $e \not\prec f^{-1}(Q)$ and $e \prec (f^{-1}(Q))_{\overline{R}}$. But $e \not\prec f^{-1}(Q)$ implies $Q \in R\eta(f(e))$. Therefore f is not R -irresolvent at e .

Theorem 3.8 An OH $f:(L_1(M_1), \delta_1) \rightarrow (L_2(M_2), \delta_2)$ is R -irresolvent iff for each $A \in L_1$, $f(A_{\overline{R}}) \prec (f(A))_{\overline{R}}$.

Proof. Provided that f is R -irresolvent and $A \in L_1$. In order to investigate $f(A_{\overline{R}}) \prec (f(A))_{\overline{R}}$, we only need to verify that for each point $e \in M_1$ and $e \prec A_{\overline{R}}$, $f(e) \prec (f(A))_{\overline{R}}$. For this purpose, in case $P \in R\eta(f(e))$, then $f^{-1}(P) = (f^{-1}(P))_{\overline{R}} \in \eta(e)$ by Theorem 3.7. Being $e \prec A_{\overline{R}}$, we have $A \not\prec f^{-1}(P)$, i.e. $f(A) \not\prec P$. Hence $f(e) \prec (f(A))_{\overline{R}}$ by Definition 2.1. Conversely, suppose that the condition is satisfied, $e \in M_1$ and $Q \in R\eta(f(e))$. Since $f(e) \not\prec Q$ iff $e \not\prec f^{-1}(Q)$, we have $f(((f^{-1}(Q))_{\overline{R}})_{\overline{R}}) \prec ((f^{-1}(Q))_{\overline{R}})_{\overline{R}} \prec Q_{\overline{R}} = Q$, that is, $(f^{-1}(Q))_{\overline{R}} \prec f^{-1}(Q)$. Therefore $(f^{-1}(Q))_{\overline{R}} \in \eta(e)$. This shows that f is R -irresolvent at e . Hence the sufficiency follows from Theorem 3.7.

Theorem 3.9 An OH $f:(L_1(M_1), \delta_1) \rightarrow (L_2(M_2), \delta_2)$ is R -irresolvent iff for each point $e \in M_1$ and each molecular net S in L_1 which R -converges to e , $f(S)$ R -converges to $f(e)$ in L_2 .

Proof. Assume that f is R -irresolvent, $e \in M_1$ and $P \in R\eta(f(e))$. Then $(f^{-1}(P))_{\overline{R}} \in \eta(e)$ by Theorem 3.7. Let $S = \{S(n) : n \in D\}$ be a molecular net which R -converges to e in L_1 . Then there exists $n_0 \in D$ such that $S(n) \not\prec (f^{-1}(P))_{\overline{R}}$, specially, $S(n) \not\prec f^{-1}(P)$ as long as $n \succ n_0$ ($n \in D$). Hence $f(S) = \{f(S(n)) : n \in D\}$ R -converges to $f(e)$ by virtue of the fact that $S(n) \not\prec f^{-1}(P)$ implies that $f(S(n)) \not\prec P$. Conversely, let $A \in L_1$ and $e \prec A_{\overline{R}}$ ($e \in M_1$). By Theorem 2.4, there exists in A a molecular net S which R -converges to e . Obviously, $f(S)$ is a molecular net in $f(A)$. Hence $f(S)$ R -converges to $f(e)$ using the condition of the theorem, and hence $f(e) \prec (f(A))_{\overline{R}}$. This means that $f(A_{\overline{R}}) \prec (f(A))_{\overline{R}}$. So f is R -irresolvent by Theorem 3.8.

Theorem 3.10. An OH $f:(L_1(M_1), \delta_1) \rightarrow (L_2(M_2), \delta_2)$ is R -irresolvent iff for each molecular net in L_1 , $f(R\text{-lim}S) \prec R\text{-lim}f(S)$.

Proof. The proof follows from Theorem 2.3 and Theorem 3.9 and is omitted.

Theorem 3.11 An OH $f:(L_1(M_1), \delta_1) \rightarrow (L_2(M_2), \delta_2)$ is R -irresolvent iff for each $B \in L_2$, $(f^{-1}(B))_{\overline{R}} \prec (f^{-1}(B_{\overline{R}}))_{\overline{R}}$.

Proof. If f is R -irresolvent and $B \in L_2$, then $f^{-1}(B) \in L_1$ and $f(((f^{-1}(B))_{\overline{R}})_{\overline{R}}) \prec ((f^{-1}(B))_{\overline{R}})_{\overline{R}} \prec B_{\overline{R}}$, equivalently, $(f^{-1}(B))_{\overline{R}} \prec f^{-1}(B_{\overline{R}})$ by Theorem 3.8. Conversely, if the condition is true, then for each $A \in L_1$ we have $A_{\overline{R}} \prec (f^{-1}(f(A))_{\overline{R}})_{\overline{R}} \prec f^{-1}((f(A))_{\overline{R}})$, i.e. $f(A_{\overline{R}}) \prec (f(A))_{\overline{R}}$. Hence the R -irresoluteness of f follows from Theorem 3.8.

Theorem 3.12 Let $f:(L_1(M_1), \delta_1) \rightarrow (L_2(M_2), \delta_2)$ be an OH. Then the following conditions are equivalent:

- (1) f is R -irresolvent.
- (2) For each R -closed element P in L_2 , $f^{-1}(P)$ is a R -closed element in L_1 .
- (3) For each R -open element G in L_2 , $f^{-1}(G)$ is a R -open element in L_1 .

Proof. The equivalence between (2) and (3) is clear. Now we prove that (1) is equivalent to (2). Suppose that f is R -irresolute and that P is R -closed in L_2 . Then $f^{-1}(P) = f^{-1}(P_R) \supseteq (f^{-1}(P))_R$ by Theorem 3.11. On the other hand, $f^{-1}(P) \subseteq (f^{-1}(P))_R$ follows from Theorem 2.1. Hence $f^{-1}(P)$ is R -closed in L_1 . Conversely, in case (2) holds, then for each $e \in M_1$, and each $Q \in R\eta(e)$ we have $f^{-1}(P) = (f^{-1}(P))_R$. Since $f(e) \not\leq P$ implies that $e \not\leq f^{-1}(P)$, $(f^{-1}(P))_R \in \eta(e)$ by Theorem 2.1(6). This means that f is R -irresolute at e . Hence f is R -irresolute in the light of Theorem 3.7.

Analogous to proof of Theorem 3.6 we have:

Theorem 3.13 If $(L_1(M_1), \delta_1)$ is a C_1 TML, then an OH $f: (L_1(M_1), \delta_1) \rightarrow (L_2(M_2), \delta_2)$ is R -irresolute iff for each point $e \in M_1$, and each molecular sequence S in L_1 which R -converges to e , $f(S)$ R -converges to $f(e)$.

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